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SOME UNDERWATER PROPAGATION STUDIES IN THE VICINITY OF THE NOSC--ETC(U)

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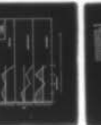
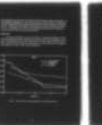
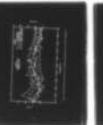
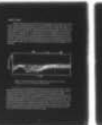
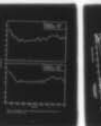
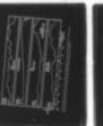
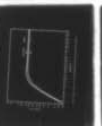
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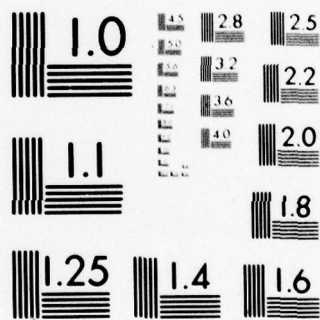
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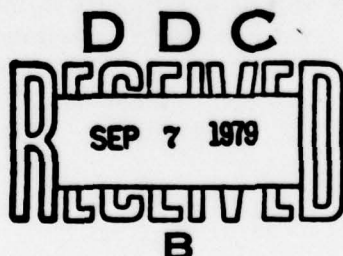
SOME UNDERWATER SOUND PROPAGATION STUDIES IN THE VICINITY OF THE NOSC OCEANOGRAPHIC TOWER

J Northrop

June 1979

Final Report

Prepared for
Office of Naval Research



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The work reported herein was sponsored by the Office of Naval Research (program element 61153N, project RR03201) and conducted over the period August 1978 to March 1979.

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to be controlled by the thickness of the unconsolidated sediment. The ground arrivals indicate a semiconsolidated sedimentary layer 553 m thick with a compressional wave speed of 4770 m/s. A second arrival line, having a sound speed of 3420 m/s, is interpreted as a shear wave that traveled in the basement rock and was converted back to a compressional wave before reaching the surface.

Overall, there was no outstanding difference between the hydrophone and geophone detectors, except the geophones do have a directionality gain of about 5 dB over omnidirectional sensors.

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SUMMARY

PROBLEM

Conduct very-low-frequency underwater sound propagation experiments in shallow water off Mission Beach, CA, to measure the S/N ratio on both hydrophones and three-component geophones for narrowband (CW) and wideband (explosive) sources. Model the propagation loss by means of a normal mode computer program.

RESULTS

The geophones had a better S/N ratio for close-in shots (less than 10 miles) at frequencies below 15 Hz. At longer range (and deeper water), the hydrophone outperformed the geophones. Propagation loss was modeled successfully by means of a Fast Field Program modified to run on the UNIVAC 1110 computer at NOSC.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Make similar measurements and/or calculations in area of strategic interest.

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INTRODUCTION

Propagation of low-frequency sound in shallow water involves interaction with the bottom and, in general, the longer the wavelength, the deeper the penetration of the bottom. Thus, the possibility of detecting sounds from ships transiting the continental shelf – where the water is generally less than 100 fathoms (182.88 m) deep – by using geophones buried in the sediment is an attractive one (Refs. 1,2). Geophones are instruments which, like seismometers, are sensitive to particle motion in the ground. Detection by this means is especially rewarding for sounds below the “cutoff” frequency, the frequency below which wavelengths are too long to permit propagation in the water layer. The sea floor in the shallow-water areas of the world varies considerably in thickness and composition. Thus, propagation loss varies as a function of geographic location as well as of frequency and seasonal changes in the sound-speed profile of the water layer (Ref. 3)

In order to measure propagation loss and the relative reception capability of geophones and hydrophones off San Diego, a program to install an array of bottom-mounted detectors near the NOSC oceanographic tower was funded in 1977 by NAVELEX 320 (Fig. 1). Ambient noise and 50-Hz CW measurements were made with this array in August of 1978, and an explosive beyond the break in slope was made under ONR (Code 463) sponsorship in December 1978. An additional CW tow was made in February 1979 for NRL. This report summarizes some of the results of these experiments.

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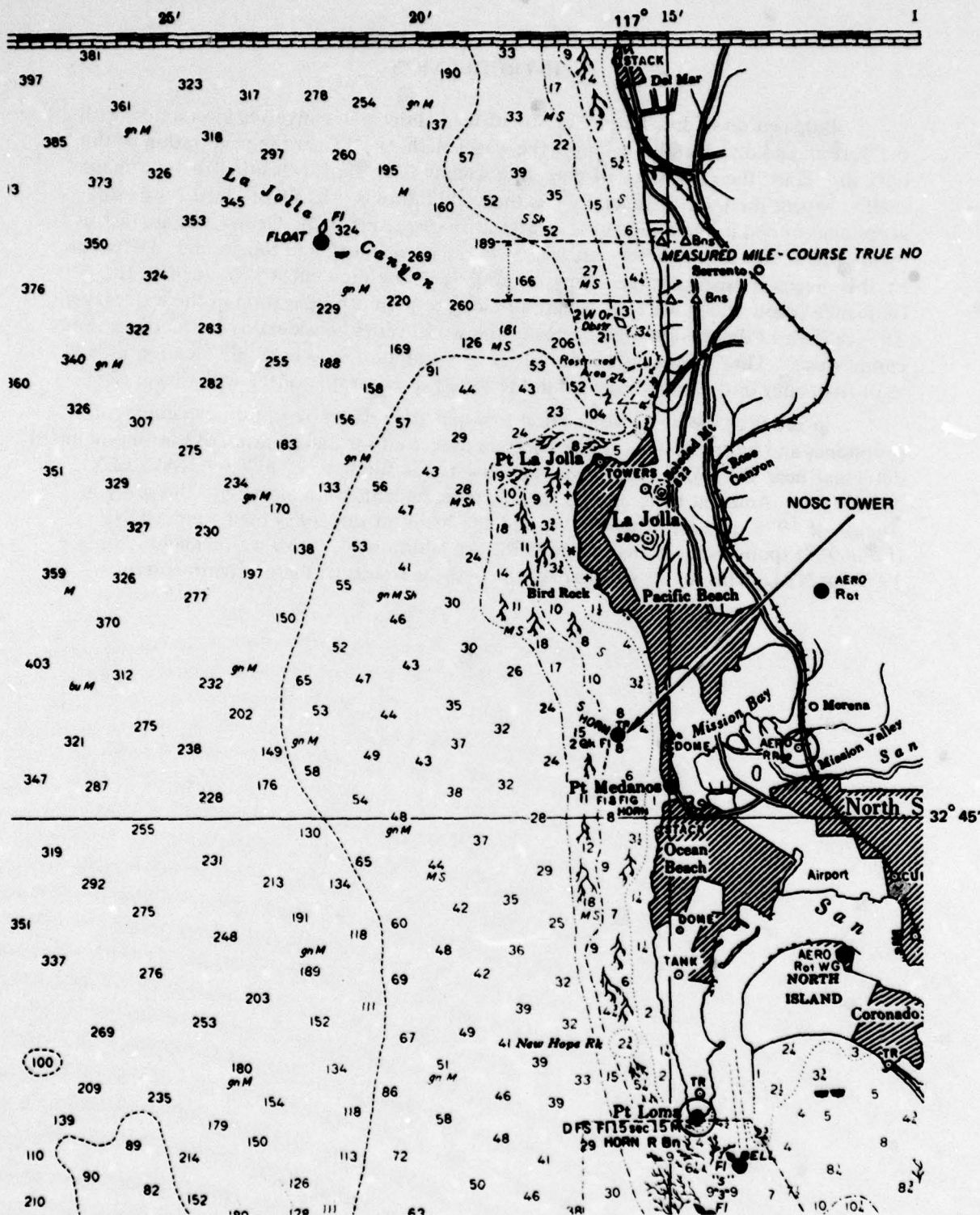


Figure 1. Map of the San Diego, California, area showing the location of the NOSC oceanographic tower.

PREVIOUS WORK

Early work on detection of sound by geophones was done at the Hudson Laboratories of Columbia University in the early 1950's. Several 1956-ft (596.18-m) wells were drilled to basement (granite rock) on Fire Island at the Bellport, NY, coast Guard Station (Ref. 4) and vertical geophones were inserted in a well at various depths from 300 ft (91.44 m) to the bottom. Reception of both CW and explosive sources was completed to a range of about 10 miles (18.52 km) in three directions. Results showed recording in the wells was noisy, principally because of the excitation of organ pipe modes or "tube waves" (Ref. 3). Additional work was done off Florida by Urick (Ref. 5), McLeroy (Ref. 6), and Latham (as reported by Hecht in Ref. 2). Geoacoustic parameters of the NOSC tower site were reported in Ref. 7 and this, along with reports by other authors, was summarized at an ONR symposium (Ref. 6).

METHOD

FIELD WORK

Sources

A CW source at 162 dB re 1 μ Pa at 1 m emitting a 50-Hz sine wave was towed in a triangular pattern over the continental shelf area west of the NOSC tower in August, 1978 (Fig. 2). An additional 40-Hz tone of unknown source level was associated with the tow boat. In February, 1979, a 100-Hz CW source was towed in a circular pattern of 1-km radius about the receivers. These data were used to document the directionality gain of the geophones (Fig. 3).

In December, 1978, a shot run was made with the USNS DE STEIGUER from 1.4 mi (2.59 km) to a range of 43.8 miles (81.3 km) west of the tower (Fig. 4). The shots were made up of from one to four 1.8-lb MK 64-0 SUS charges set to explode at 60 ft (18.28 m) over the continental shelf, and 800 ft (243.84 m) in deeper water off the edge of the shelf. The "shallow" and "deep" shots were alternated over the last three-quarters of the run, the size of the deep shots being increased at the longer ranges. The shallow shots were fired with SUS launcher when a single 1.8-lb shot was detonated, while for a 3.6-lb "shallow" shot, one SUS charge was fired by launcher, and the other dropped over the side at the instant the first one hit the water. Charges of 3.6, 5.4, and 7.2 lb at 800 ft were made up of two, three, and four SUS charges taped together; details of the shot schedule are shown in Table 1. Shot instants were transmitted to the radio receiver in the tower by placing the microphone of the ship's laboratory radio set against the deck at the time the shock wave reached the ship. Radio reception was excellent throughout the shot run and the shot instants were well recorded at the tower.

Receivers

Two triaxial arrays of Walker-Hall-Sears, Inc., Model M-Z-3 geophones (N-S, E-W, and vertical) orthogonally mounted on an angle iron framework (Fig. 5) were buried about 6 in (15.24 cm) in the sand by the divers. The instruments were leveled by the use of a bubble level mounted atop the angle iron frame, and the N-S geophone was correctly

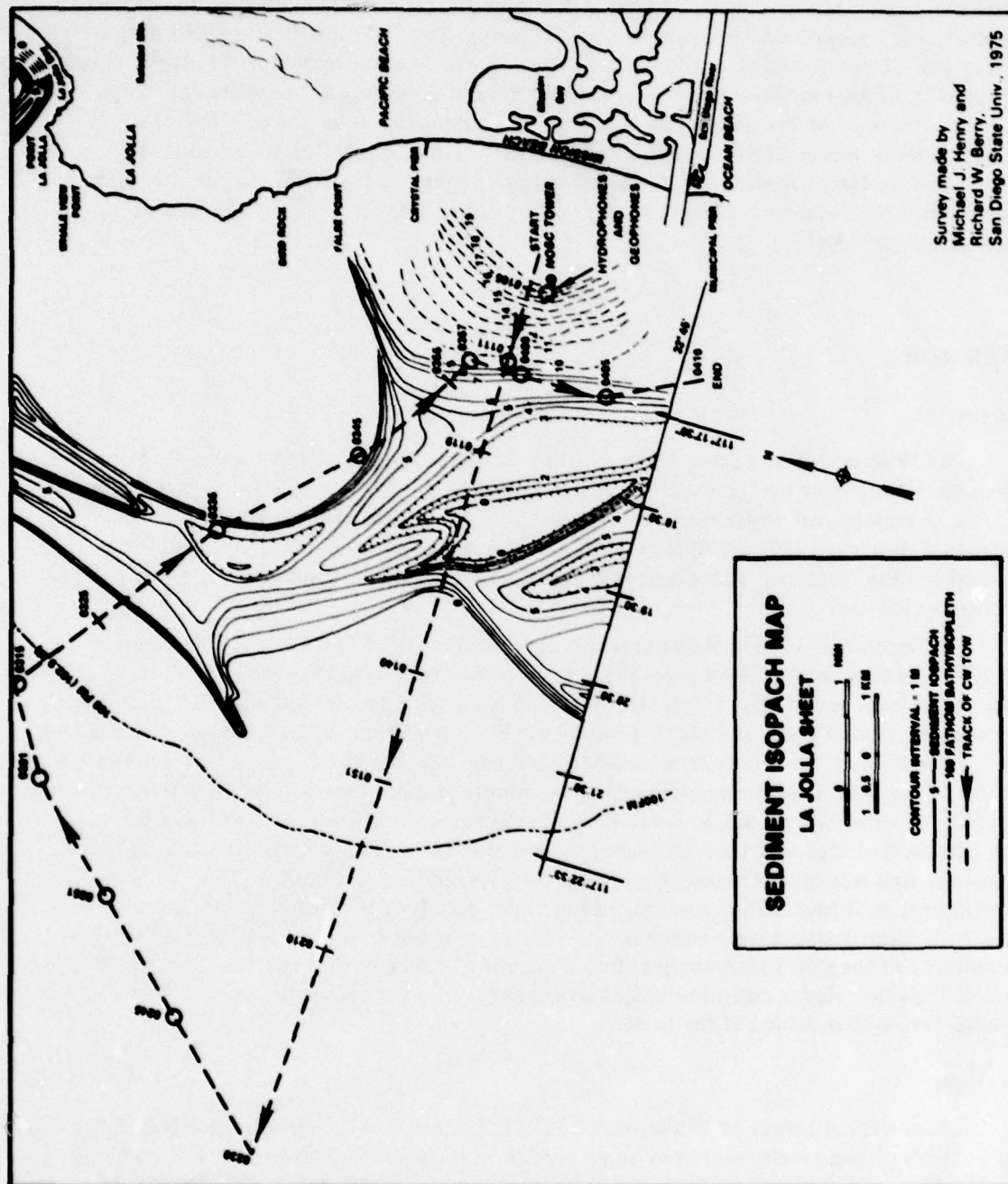


Figure 2. Chart of the NOSC tower area showing the track of the CW tows.

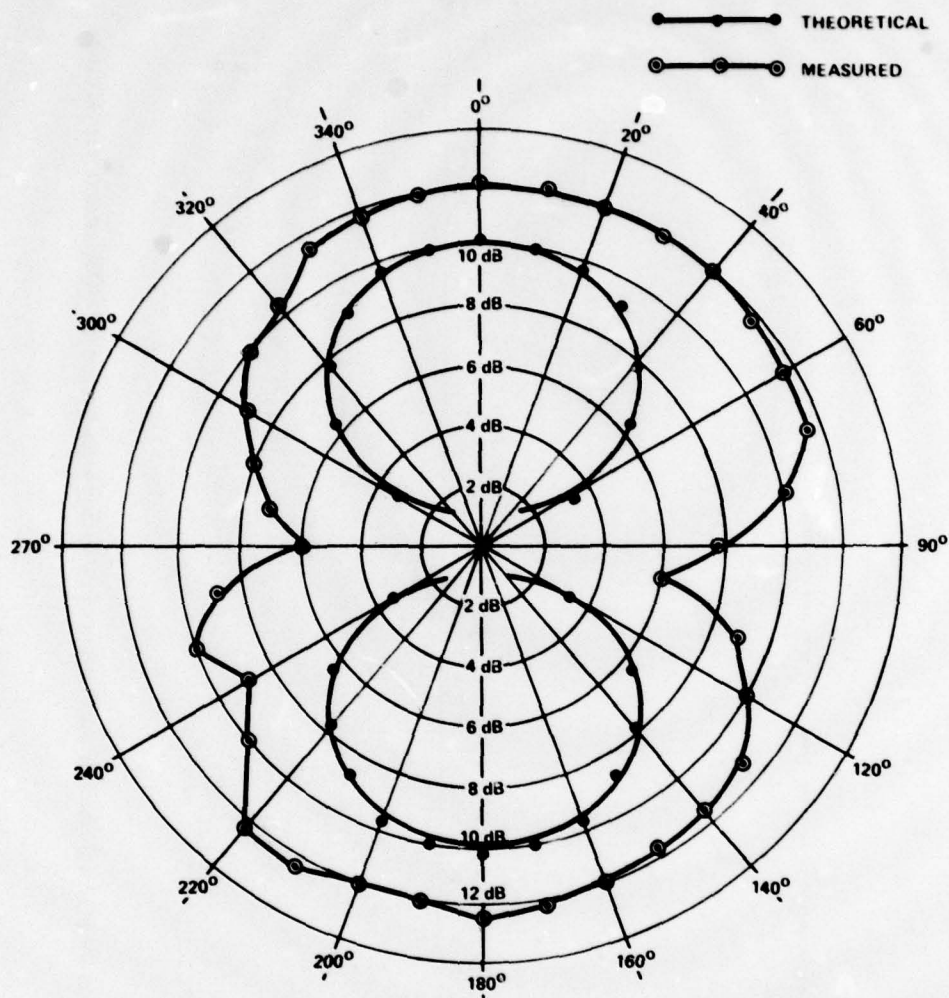


Figure 3. Directionality response of the N-S geophone compared to the theoretical response.

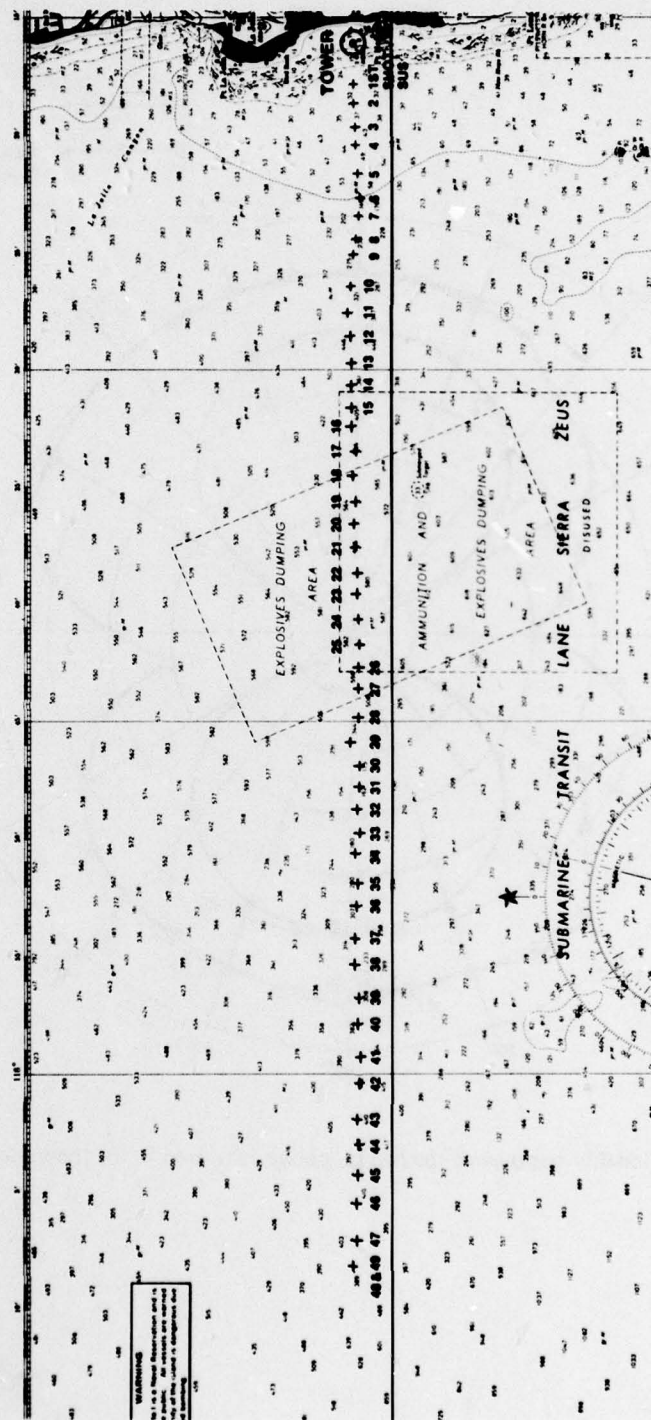


Figure 4. Chart of the San Diego trough showing the location of the SUS charges west of the NOSC oceanographic tower.

Table 1. Shot size, depth, range, and water depth beneath the ship.

SHOT	SIZE (lb)	DEPTH (ft)	RANGE (nmi)	RANGE (km)	WATER DEPTH (m)
TEST	1.8	60	1.4	2.58	43.8
1	1.8	60	1.45	2.68	47.5
2	1.8	60	2.15	3.98	54.8
3	1.8	60	2.95	5.46	64.0
4	1.8	60	3.65	6.75	73.1
5	1.8	60	4.7	8.7	84.1
6	1.8	60	5.6	10.37	122.5
7	1.8	60	6.25	11.57	374.9
8	1.8	60	7.05	13.05	418.8
9	1.8	60	7.9	14.63	484.6
10	1.8	60	8.75	16.2	537.6
11	3.6	60	9.5	17.59	610.8
12	3.6	60	10.5	19.44	749.8
13	3.6	60	11.4	21.1	850.3
14	3.6	60	12.2	22.59	731.5
15	3.6	800	13.1	24.26	694.9
16	3.6	60	13.93	25.8	819.3
17	5.4	800	14.57	27.0	974.7
18	3.6	60	15.5	28.7	976.5
19	5.4	800	16.8	31.1	987.5
20	3.6	60	17.54	32.5	1002.1
21	5.4	800	18.61	34.48	1011.3
22	3.6	60	19.35	35.85	929.0
23	7.2	800	20.50	37.97	1018.6
24	3.6	60	21.76	40.3	1031.4
25	7.2	800	22.0	40.76	1047.9
26	3.6	60	23.81	44.1	1064.3
27	7.2	800	24.1	44.64	1073.5
28	3.6	60	24.94	46.19	914.4
29	7.2	800	25.48	47.2	325.5
30	3.6	60	26.78	49.6	310.8
31	7.2	800	28.07	52.0	288.9
32	3.6	60	28.67	53.1	274.3
33	7.2	800	30.29	56.1	329.1
34	3.6	60	30.56	56.6	477.3
35	7.2	800	31.37	58.1	515.7
36	3.6	60	32.61	60.4	530.3
37	7.2	800	33.04	61.2	544.9
38	3.6	60	33.8	62.6	501.1
39	7.2	800	34.88	64.6	537.6
40	3.6	60	35.91	66.5	530.3
41	7.2	800	37.36	69.2	665.6
42	3.6	60	37.63	69.7	658.3
43	7.2	800	38.49	71.3	693.1
44	3.6	60	39.47	73.1	702.2
45	7.2	800	40.17	74.4	705.9
46	3.6	60	40.98	75.9	704.1

Table 1. (Continued).

SHOT	SIZE (lb)	DEPTH (ft)	RANGE (nmi)	RANGE (km)	WATER DEPTH(m)
47	7.2	800	41.74	77.3	715.1
48	1.8	60	42.65	79.0	727.8
49	3.6	60	43.89	81.3	731.5
50	5.4	800	43.89	81.3	731.5

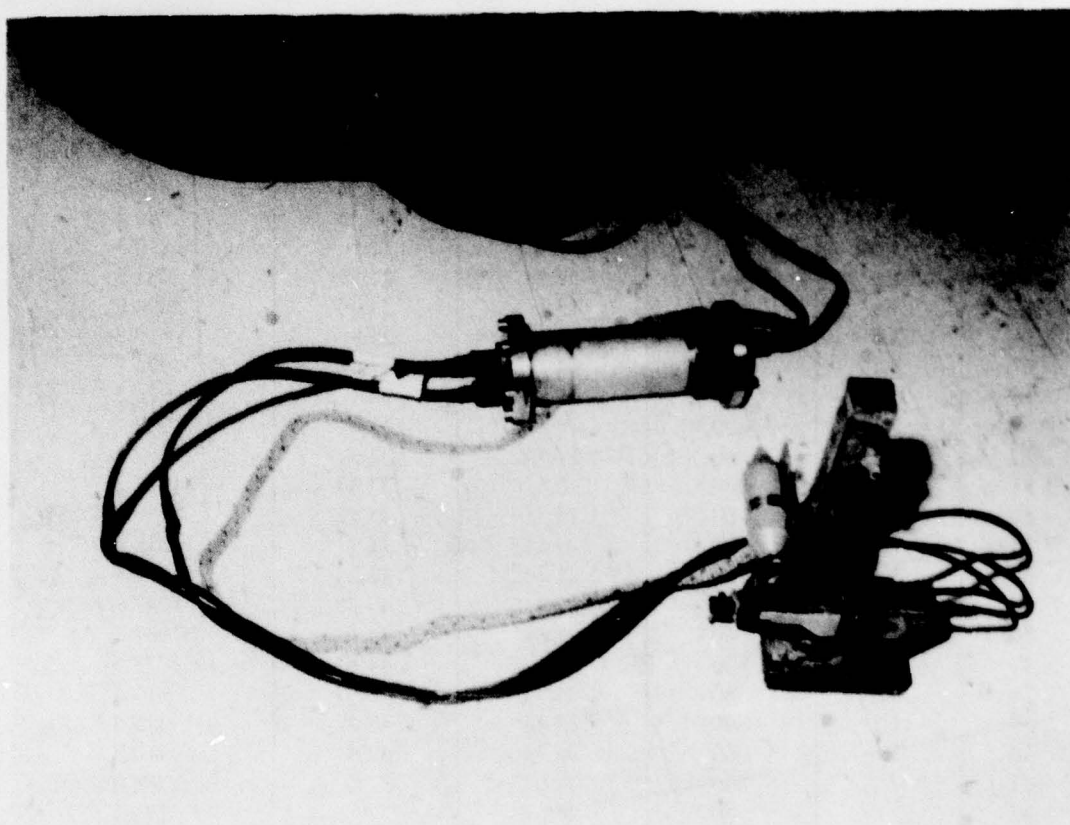


Figure 5. Photograph of the three-component geophone array that was used for detection of sound in the ground at the NOSC oceanographic tower.

oriented by the divers. An additional array of five E-W oriented geophones was deployed at 1,000 ft (304.8 m) bearing 045 deg. (T) from the tower for the August exercise. The geophones had a sensitivity of about -124 dB re $1 \mu\text{Pa}$ and a natural frequency of 8 Hz. Figure 6 shows the frequency response curves for the geophones.

Two hydrophones were deployed at each of the geophone clusters, one on the bottom and one buried about 9 in (22.86 cm) in the sediment. These hydrophones were of the pressure-sensitive ceramic type and had sensitivity of about -110 dB re $1 \mu\text{Pa}$. They had a flat response down to about 20 Hz with a roll-off of about 8 dB per octave below that (Fig. 7). For the shot run, a relatively insensitive hydrophone was suspended from the tower

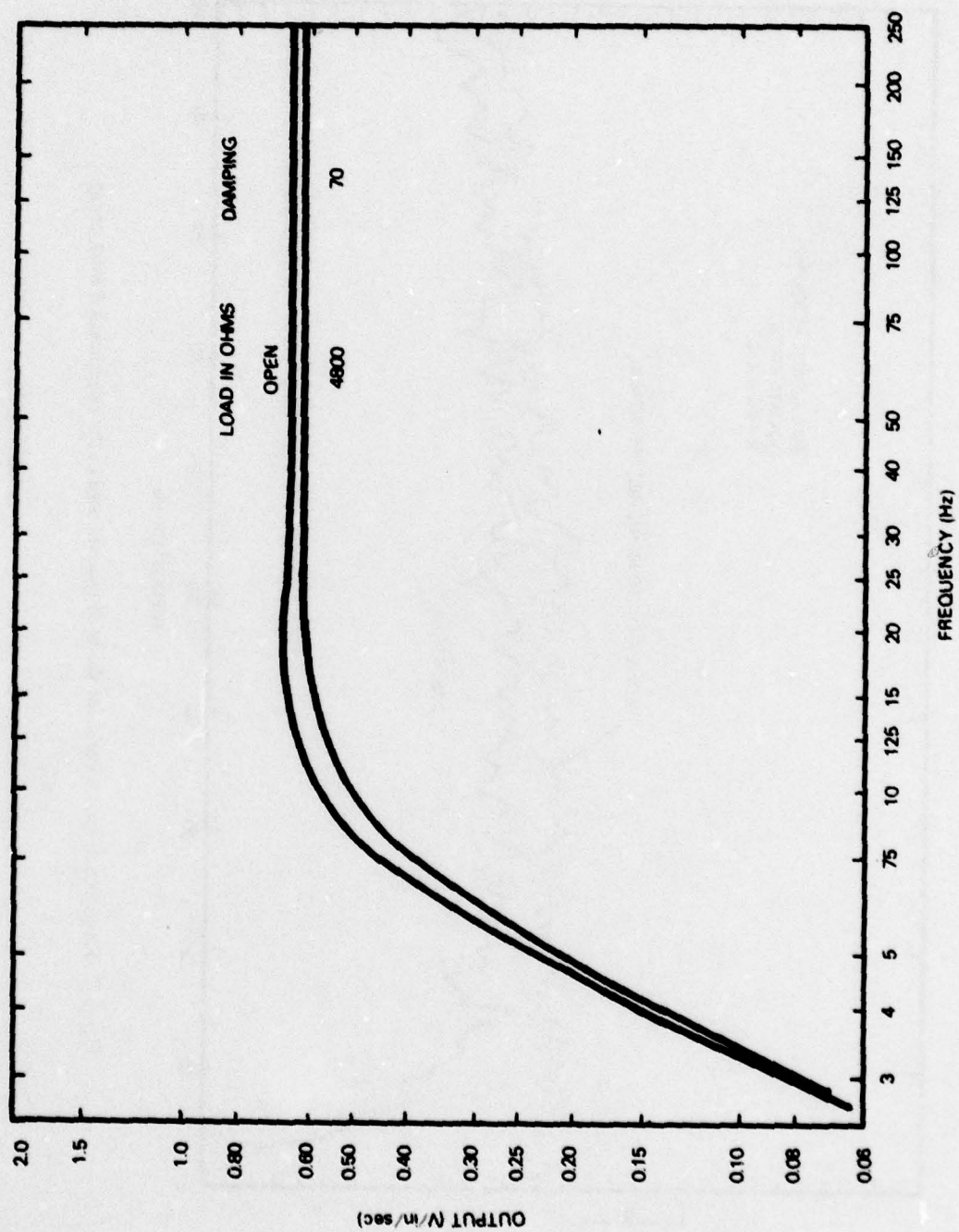


Figure 6. Frequency response curve for the Walker-Hall-Sears Model M-Z-3 geophones used in the experiment.

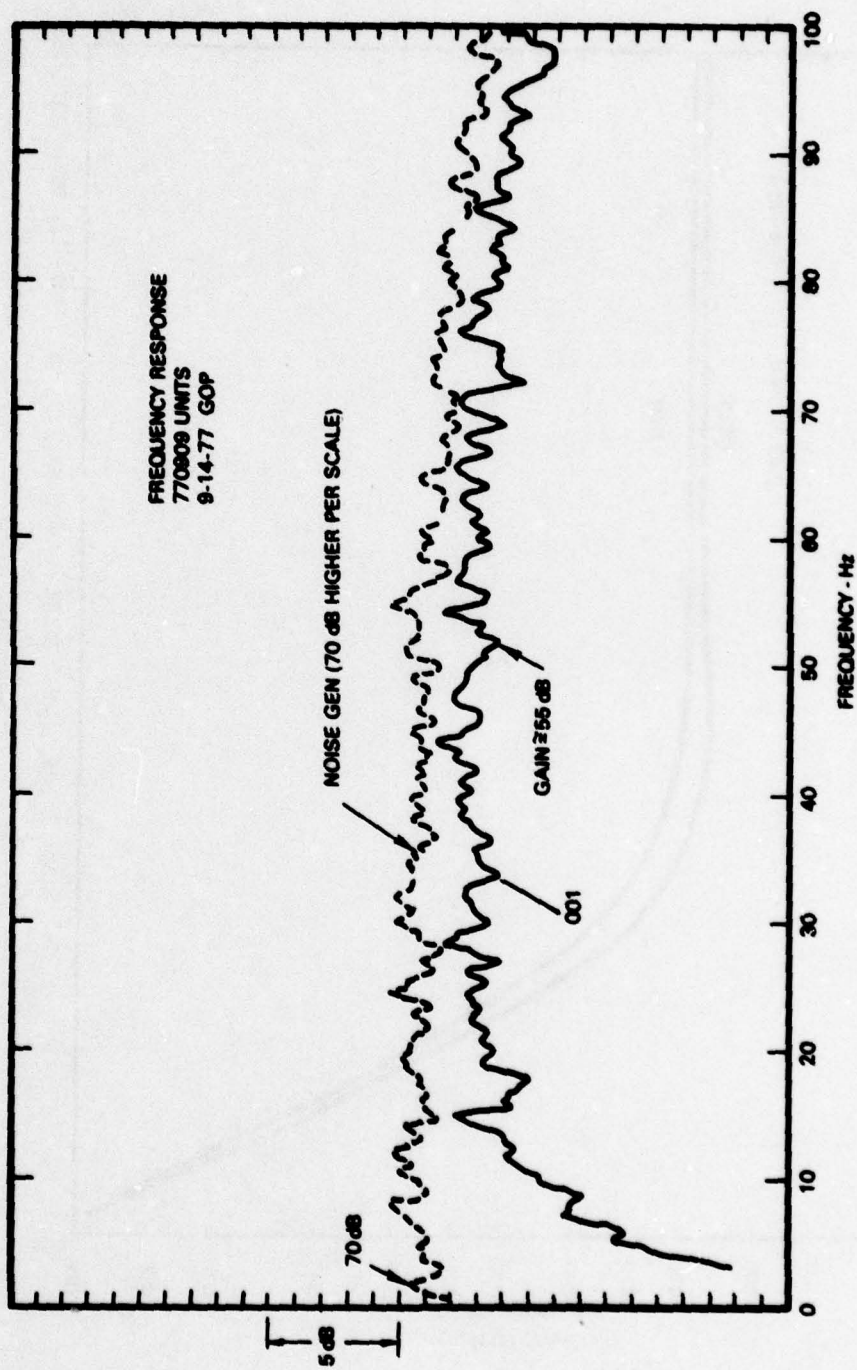


Figure 7. Frequency response curve for the hydrophones used in the experimental work at sea.

for recording high-level shot signals from close-in shots causing overloading of the other detectors. At the time of the shot run, this insensitive hydrophone became inoperative (apparently due to leakage), one of the vertical geophones was also inoperative, and one of the E-W geophones appeared to give peculiar results. Later analysis of the records showed that the response of this E-W unit was intermittently saturated at 44 and 88 Hz, a condition believed due to tilt (the horizontal geophones have to be within 3 deg of horizontal to function properly). Therefore data from this geophone and its orthogonal N-S unit were not used in the results (the vertical geophones are not nearly as sensitive to leveling as the horizontal units). Data were recorded on a 14-channel AMPEX 1300A FM magnetic tape recorder for later processing and a 12-channel model 906C Honeywell Visicorder for visual monitoring of the shot signals.

Analysis

The tape recordings were played back on the same unit that recorded them, using the same amplifiers (Ithaco Model P11) used in the field. Narrowband frequency analysis of the signals was done on a Spectrum Dynamics Model 330 spectrum analyzer and displayed on a Hewlett Packard Model 7035B X-Y plotter (Fig. 8). For analysis of the shot records, the SD-330 analyzer was operated in two modes: transient capture and peak hold (Fig. 9). The CW signals were analyzed in the eight-pulse averaging mode and displayed on a Moseley Model 680 Autograf recorder (Fig. 10). The Visicorder was used in analysis for display of sections of the recordings requiring more detail than was available on the records made in the field. Source levels for the SUS charges were computed from Ref. 8.

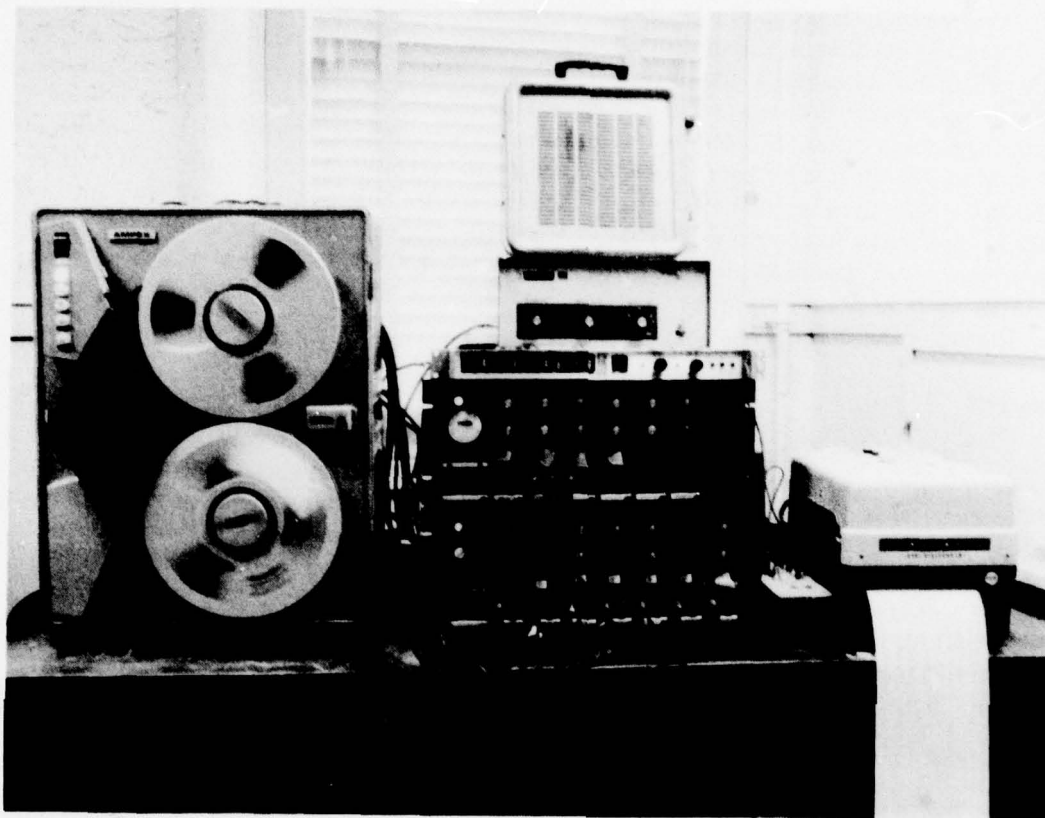


Figure 8. Photograph of the recording/analysis equipment used in the experiment.

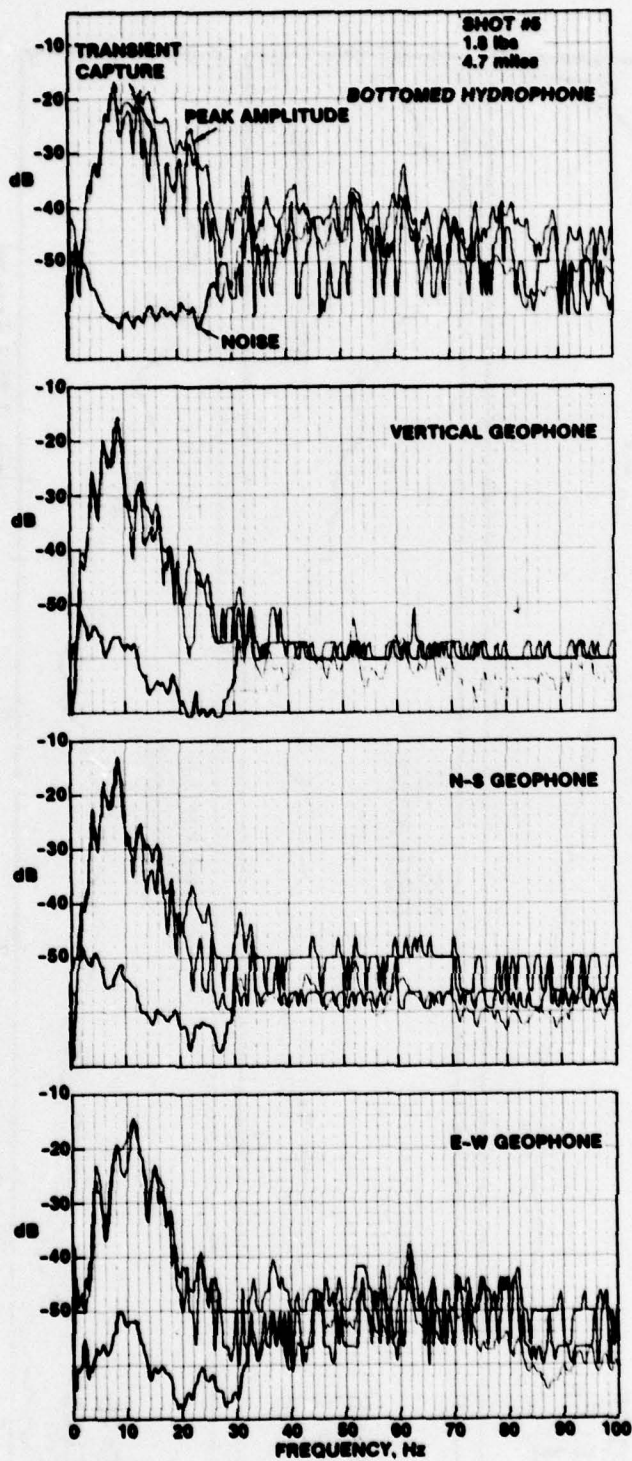


Figure 9. Frequency spectrum analyses of signals from a 1.8-lb "shallow" shot at 4.7 miles (8.7 km) showing both the transient capture and peak hold results.

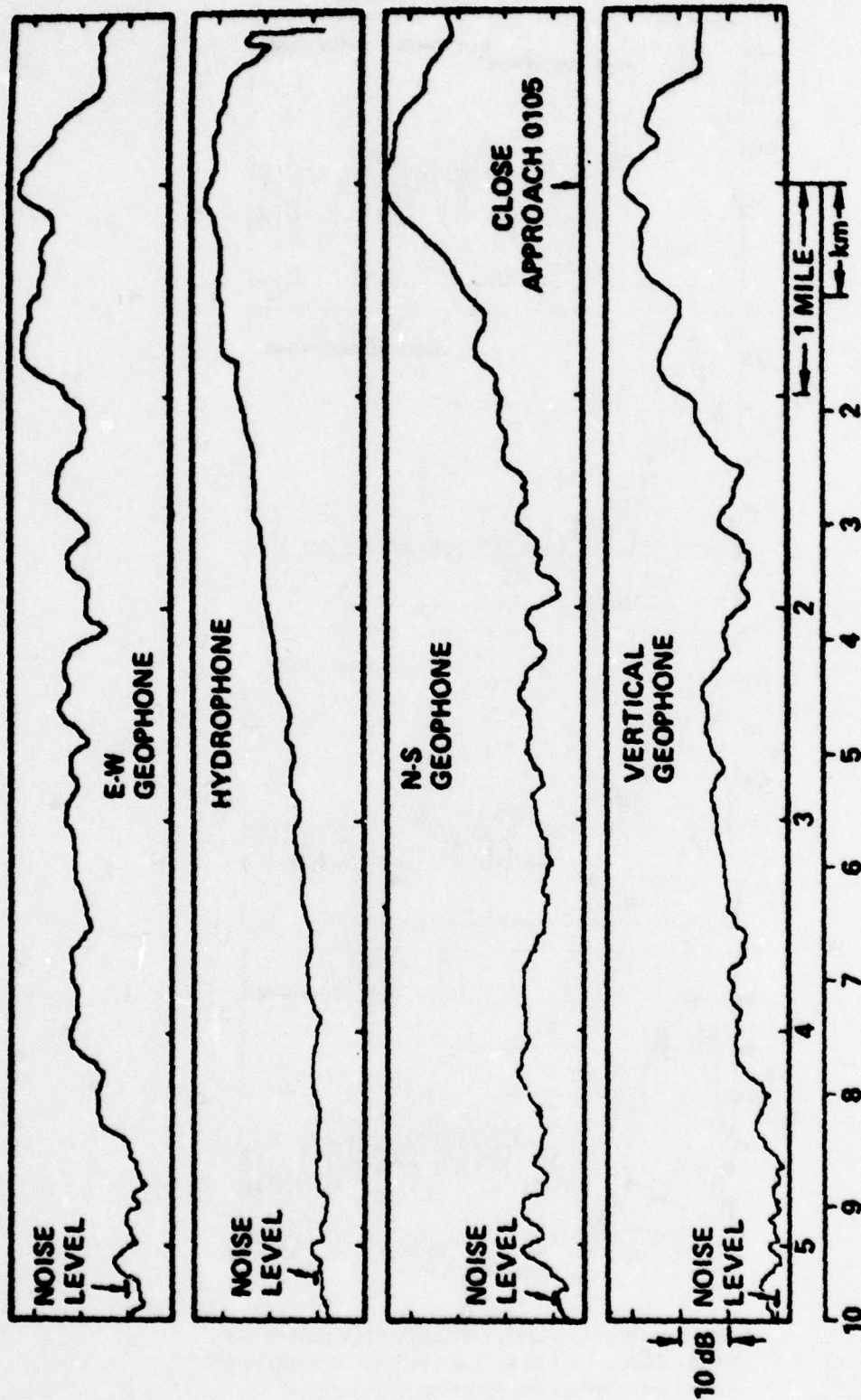


Figure 10. Playback of the signal level vs time recording for the 40-Hz CW signal as recorded on the E-W geophone. Null at CPA, caused by the transmitter being north of the detector, is about 7 dB, which indicates the directionality gain of this geophone.

RESULTS

PROPAGATION

General

Propagation was by SR/BR (Surface Reflected/Bottom Reflected) ray paths for both the deep and shallow shots. As shown in Fig. 11, the sound rays were concentrated both over Thirtymile Bank and the continental shelf. Some additional rays were reflected from the flanks of Thirtymile Bank and show up as later arrivals of shots 13 through 27. Computed propagation loss is marked by the lack of convergence zone peaks and an 8- to 10-dB up-slope enhancement (Fig. 12).

Measured propagation loss for the 40-Hz and 50-Hz CW runs over the continental shelf section is known in somewhat better detail. The 40-Hz data show various peaks and troughs associated with cancellation and reinforcement of propagation modes to be more prominent in the E-W and vertical geophone data than the N-S geophone and hydrophone data (Fig. 13). Also, as shown in the figure, propagation loss is greater over the area of thickening, unconsolidated sediment than where there are rock outcrops, and the E-W geophone was the only one that received data at ranges beyond the sedimentary basin.

The 50-Hz data were reduced to spectrum levels so that the CW and shot levels could be plotted on the same scale (Fig. 14). As shown in the figure, the vertical geophone data again show prominent mode interference patterns, whereas the E-W, N-S, and hydrophone data do not. At longer ranges, the shot data show mode interference peaks of about 5-6 dB for all the detectors. No one unit appears to be superior throughout, but the hydrophone data show greater loss than the geophone data in the range interval 7-18 km. The overall loss appears to be about $20 \log R_1 + 10 \log R_2$, where R_1 is 300 m (the point of closest approach of the CW tow to the detectors) as shown by the dashed curve in the figure.

No close-in data were available for frequencies below 40 Hz because the first three SUS charges overloaded all the detection systems. Data from shots 4 through 11 (at ranges of 6.75 to 17.59 km) are shown in Figs. 15a-15d for frequencies of 5, 10, 20 and 30 Hz, respectively. As shown in the figures, the geophones showed less loss than the hydrophone, except at 20 Hz, where the hydrophone performed as well or better than the geophones. (This effect may be produced by the roll-off of the hydrophone's response, which is sharper than that of the geophone.) Even so, the 30-Hz data show the hydrophone loss to be greater than the geophone's, and at this frequency, both types of detectors have a flat response.

Beyond the edge of the shelf (shot 11) no obvious ground arrivals were noted on the records. For shots at greater ranges, the S/N of the hydrophones was greater than of the geophones for frequencies above 5 Hz. Examples of these data are shown in Figs. 16a-16d, for shots 32, 36, 46, 49, and 50 for frequencies of 5, 10, 20, 30, 40, and 50 Hz, respectively. Figure 17 shows the type of spectral analysis from which these data were measured.

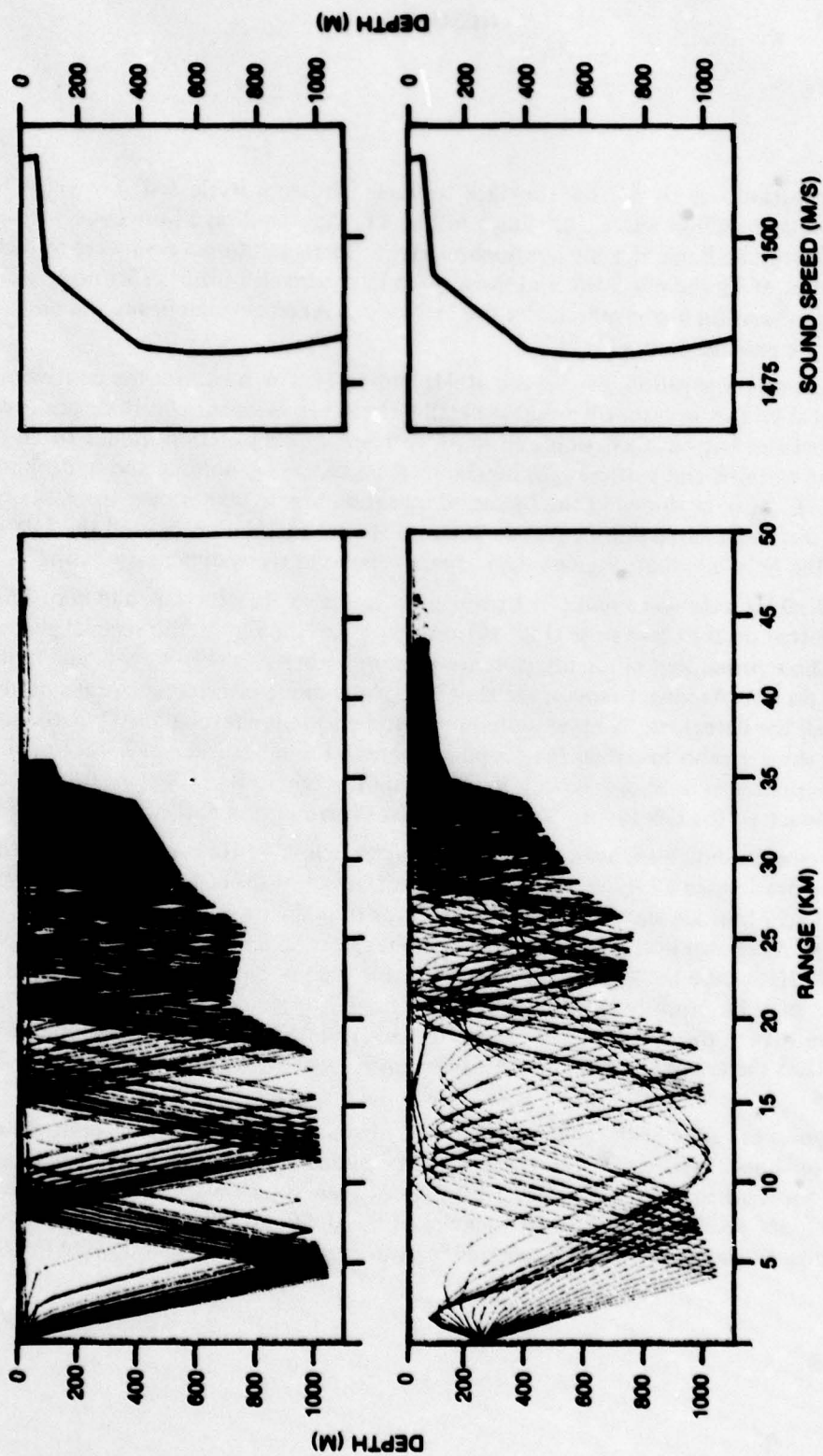


Figure 11. Sound ray tracing for the "deep" and "shallow" shots. Rays traced are from -16 to +16 deg in 1-deg increments.

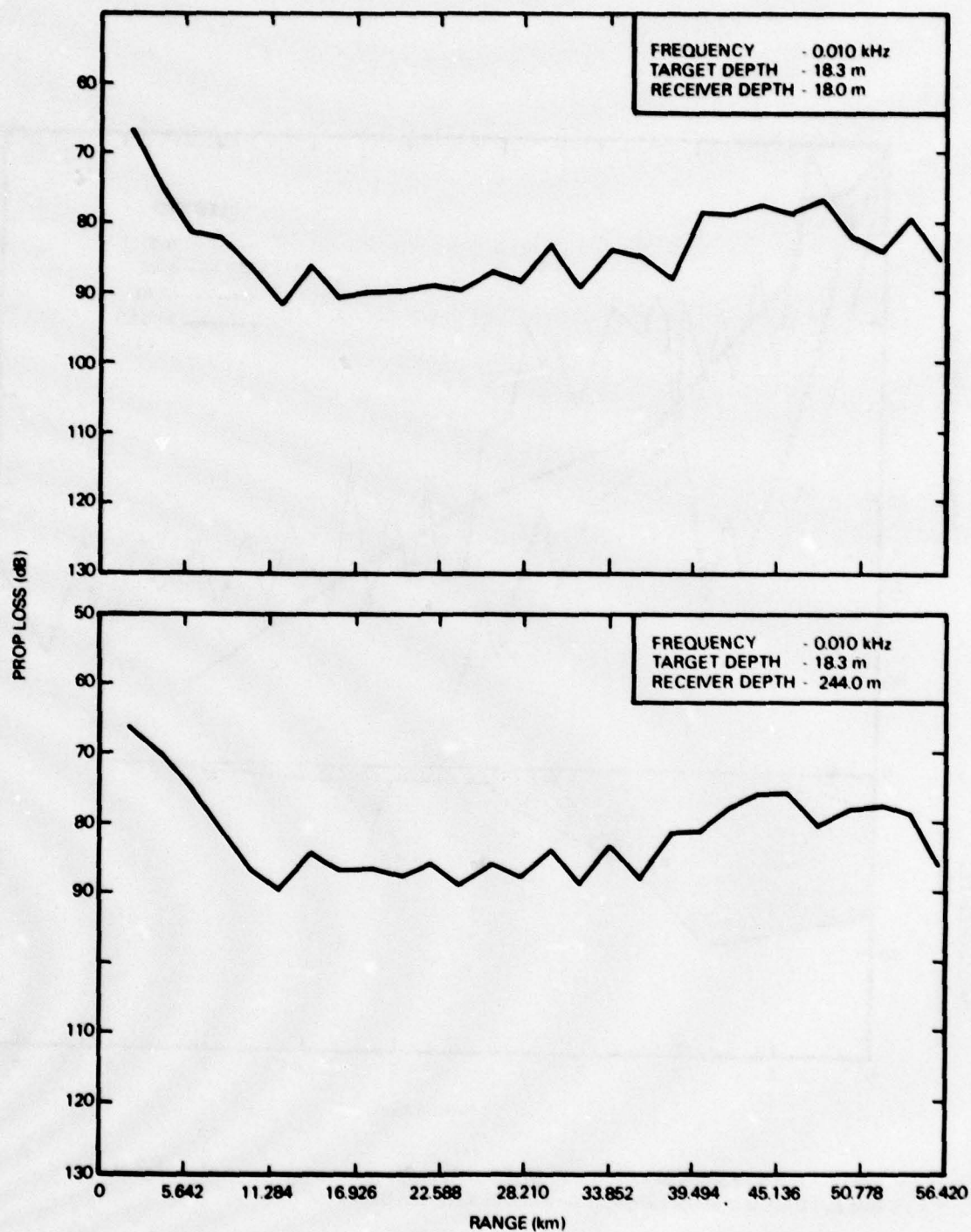


Figure 12. Propagation loss curves, computed using the RAYWAVE method (Ref. 9) for the "deep" and "shallow" shots.

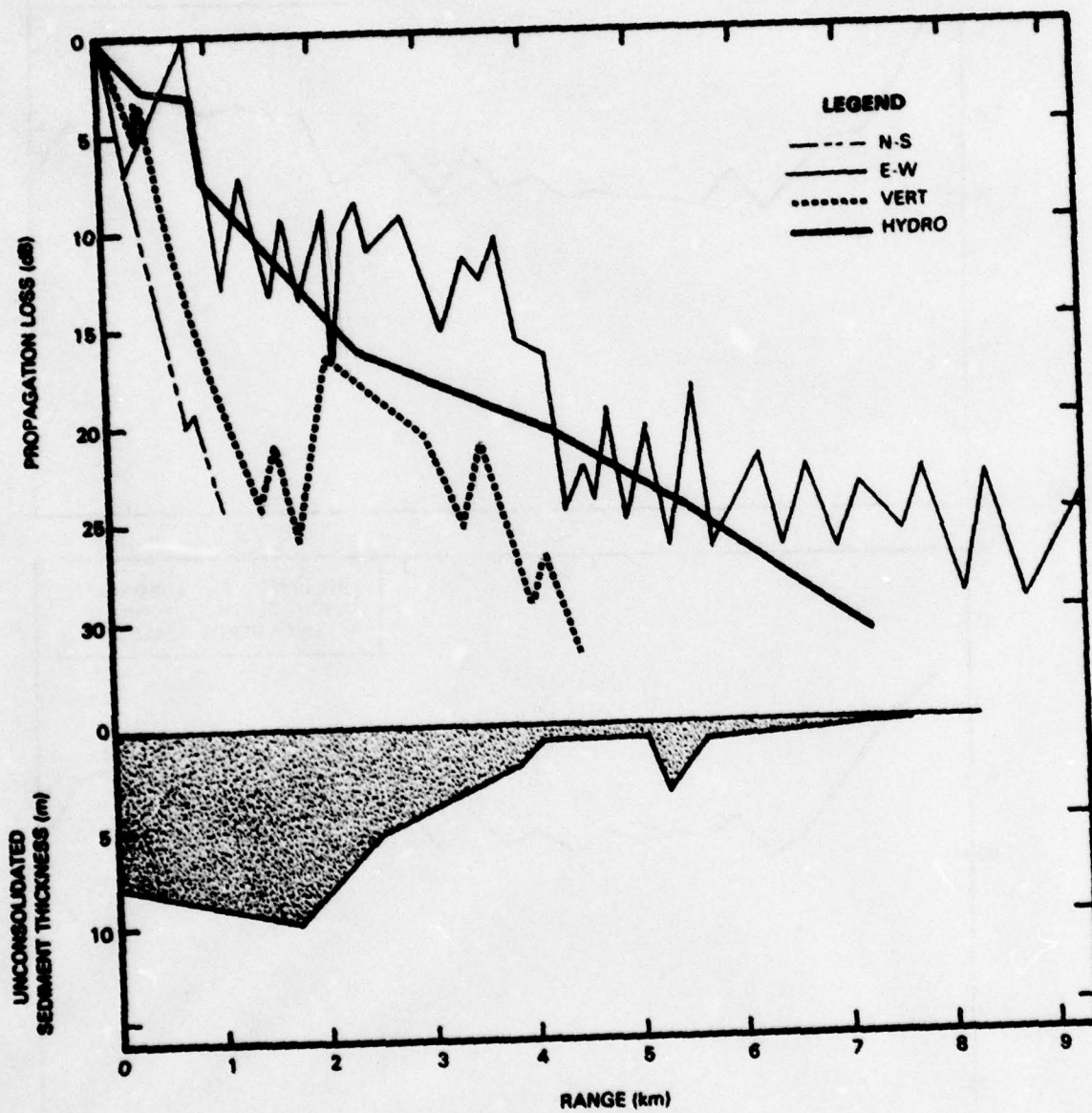


Figure 13. Propagation loss for the 40-Hz CW data showing the relationship of propagation loss and thickness of unconsolidated sediment along the track.

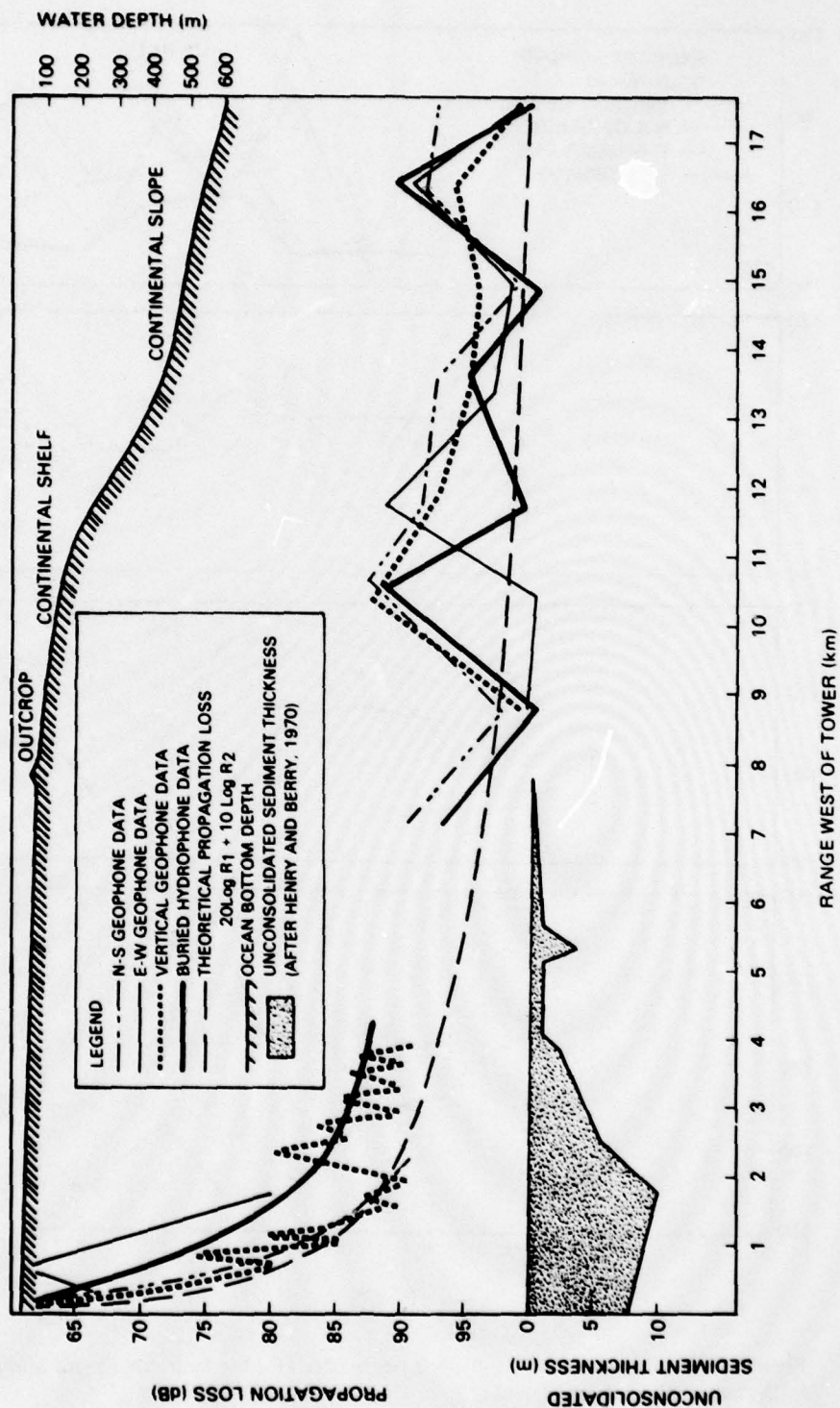


Figure 14. Propagation loss of the CW and shot data for 50 Hz out to the edge of the continental shelf. Dashed line shows computed propagation loss.

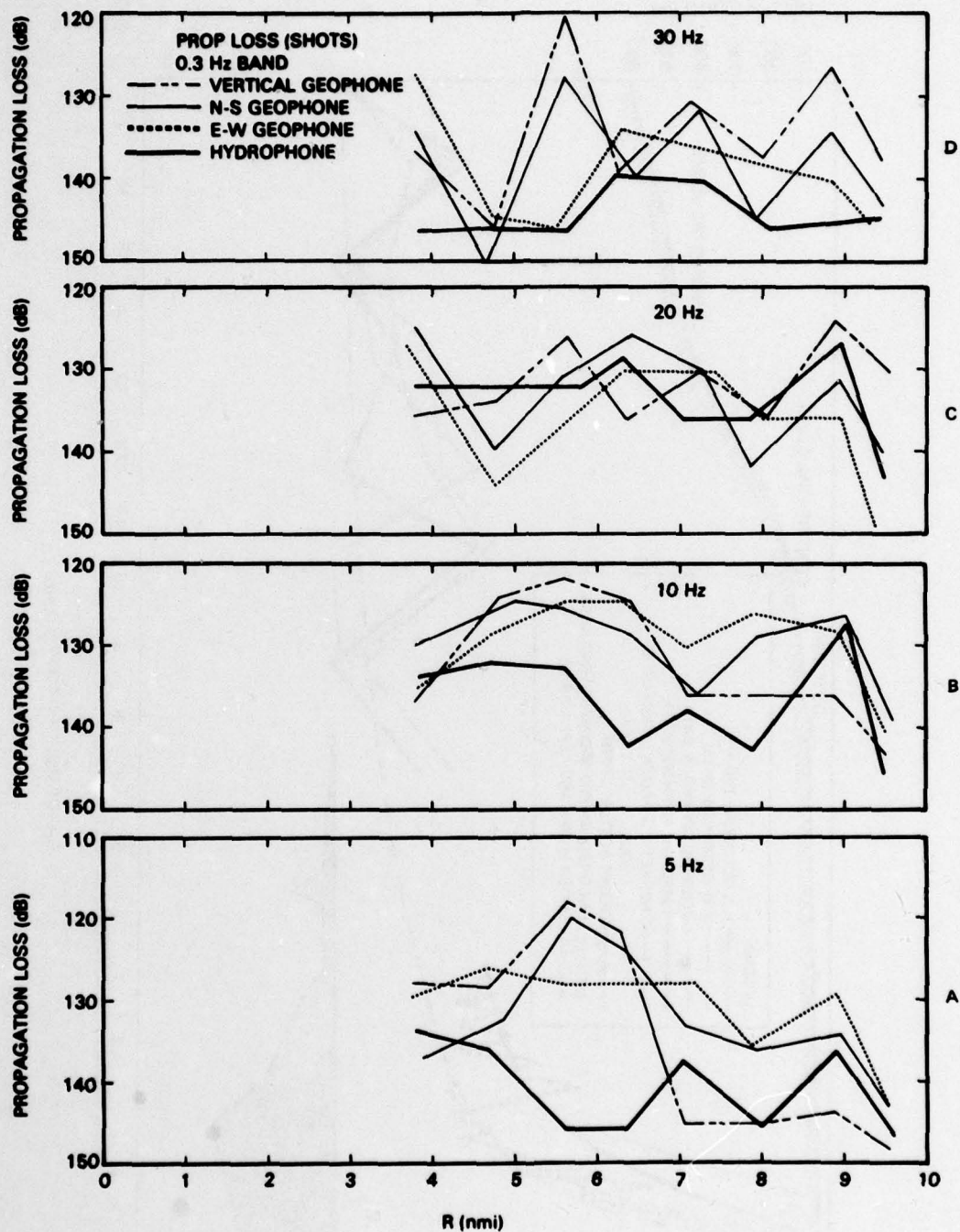


Figure 15. Propagation loss (at indicated frequencies) for the hydrophone and geophones in the tests with explosive sources.

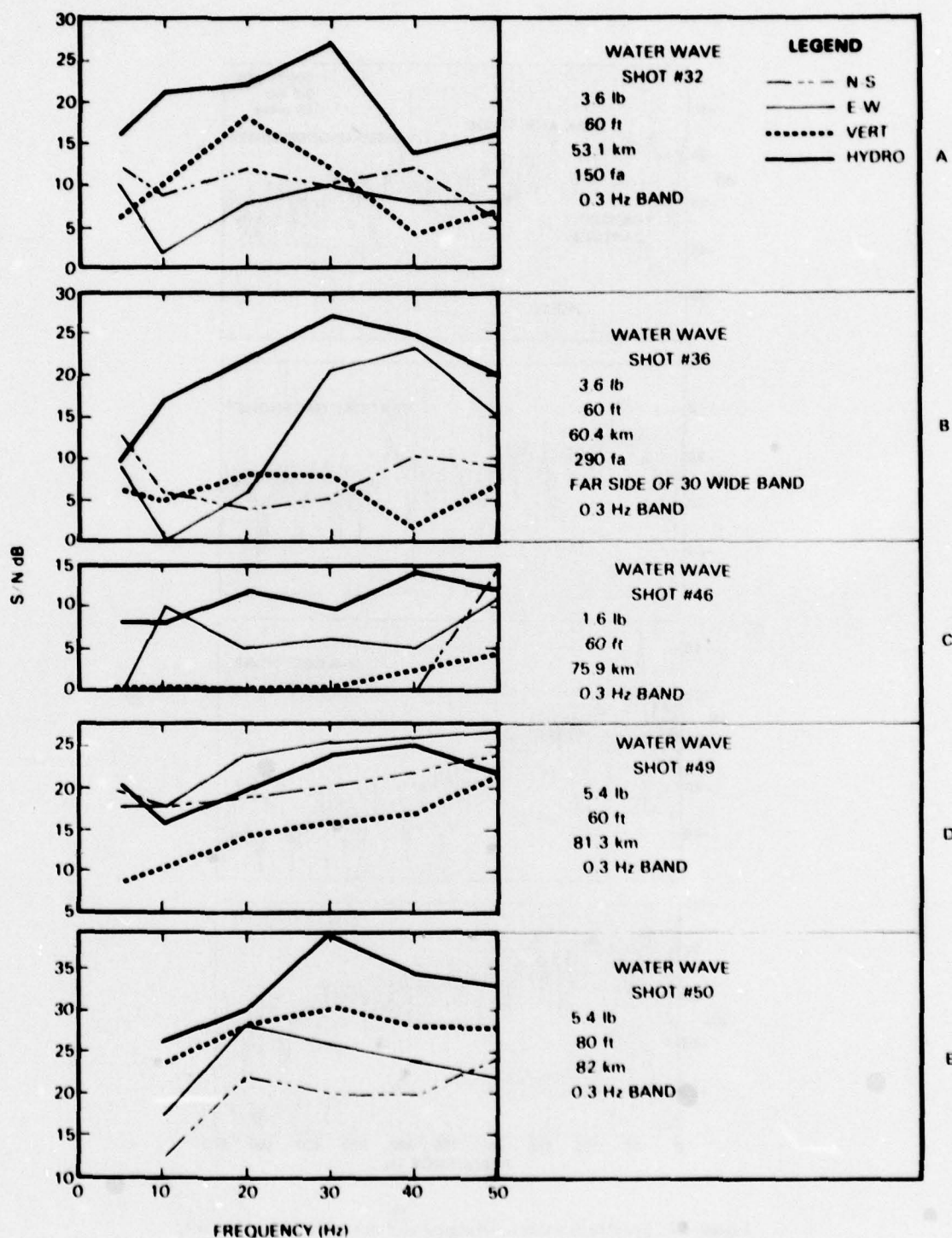


Figure 16. Hydrophone and geophone signal-to-noise ratios for frequencies below 50 Hz (explosive sources).

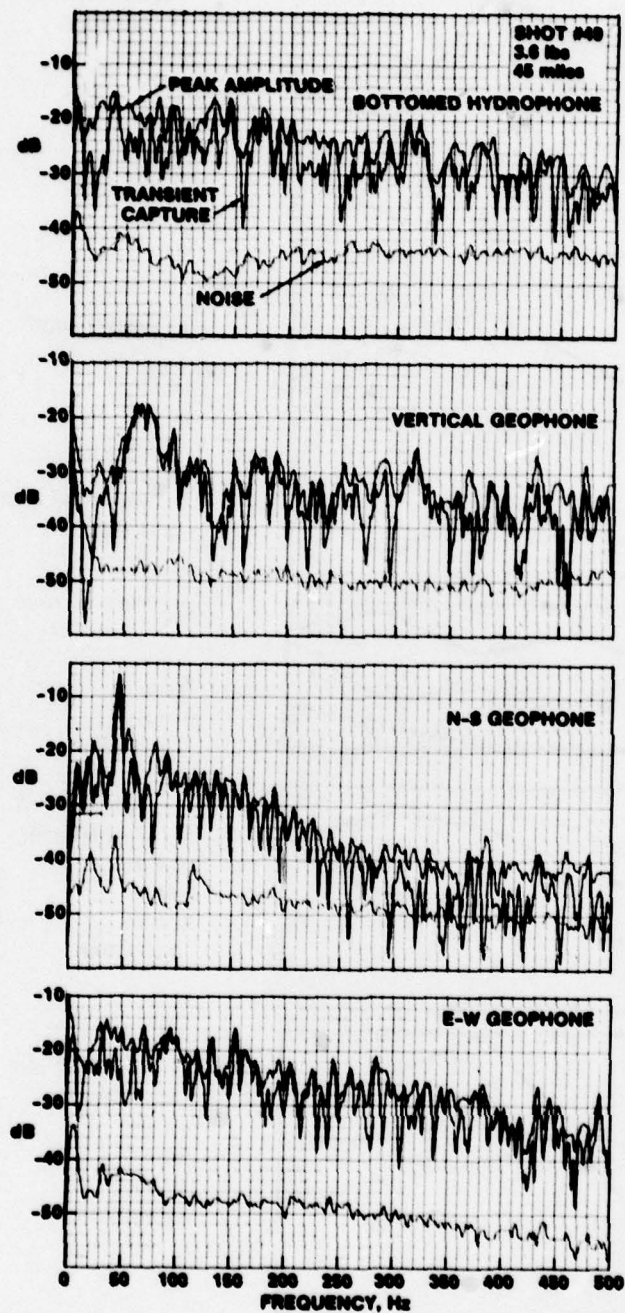


Figure 17. Spectrum analysis of signal and noise levels for shot 49, the last "shallow" shot in the profile in a 3-Hz bandwidth for frequencies up to 500 Hz.

Ground Arrivals

Shots 1-11 over the continental shelf and slope showed prominent ground arrivals preceding the water arrival. As shown in Fig. 18, the arrivals appear on both the hydrophone and geophone traces. The first arrival shown in the figure is the arrival of the compressional or (P) wave through the ground; the next (in time) prominent arrival is interpreted as a shear or (S) wave; and the last, and most intense, arrival is the water wave, i.e., energy that traveled with the speed of sound in water between source and receiver.

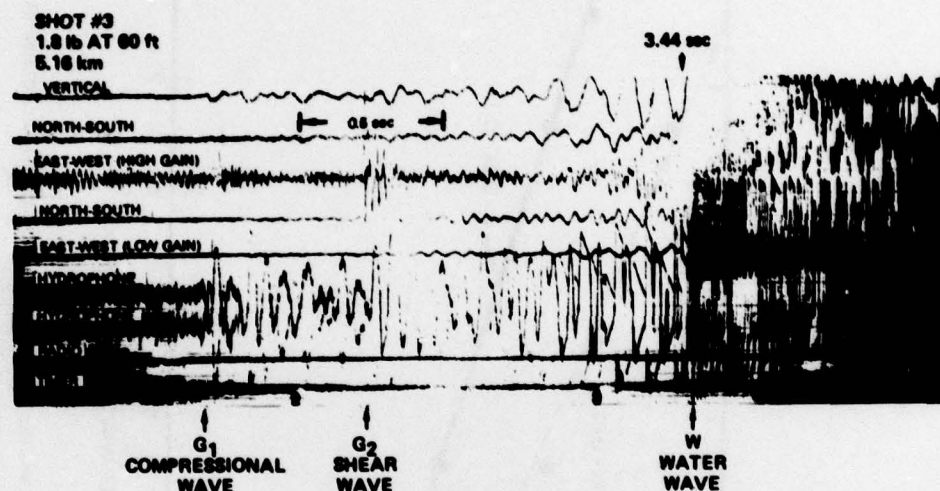


Figure 18. Oscillograph recording of shot 3 showing the hydrophone, geophone, and radio signals received. Note the prominent S (shear) wave arrival after the initial P (compressional) wave arrival.

Based on these arrival time data, a plot of water wave travel time vs ground wave travel time was constructed (Fig. 19). As shown in the figure, the P arrivals form a straight line having an intercept of 0.7 s, and a slope of about 3.2 times that of the water wave (which has a slope of 1). With this information, the thickness and sound speed of the refracting layer can be determined by means of the standard formulas for refraction profiling calculation (see for example Ref. 10):

$$Z = \frac{t_i}{2} \frac{V_2 \times V_1}{\sqrt{V_2^2 - V_1^2}} \quad (1)$$

where Z is the depth of the refracting layer, V_1 is the sound speed of the first layer, V_2 is the sound speed of the refracting layer, and t_i is the intercept. Since V_1 is known (Ref. 7) and V_2 can be determined from Fig. 19, the depth can be easily calculated to be 553 m.

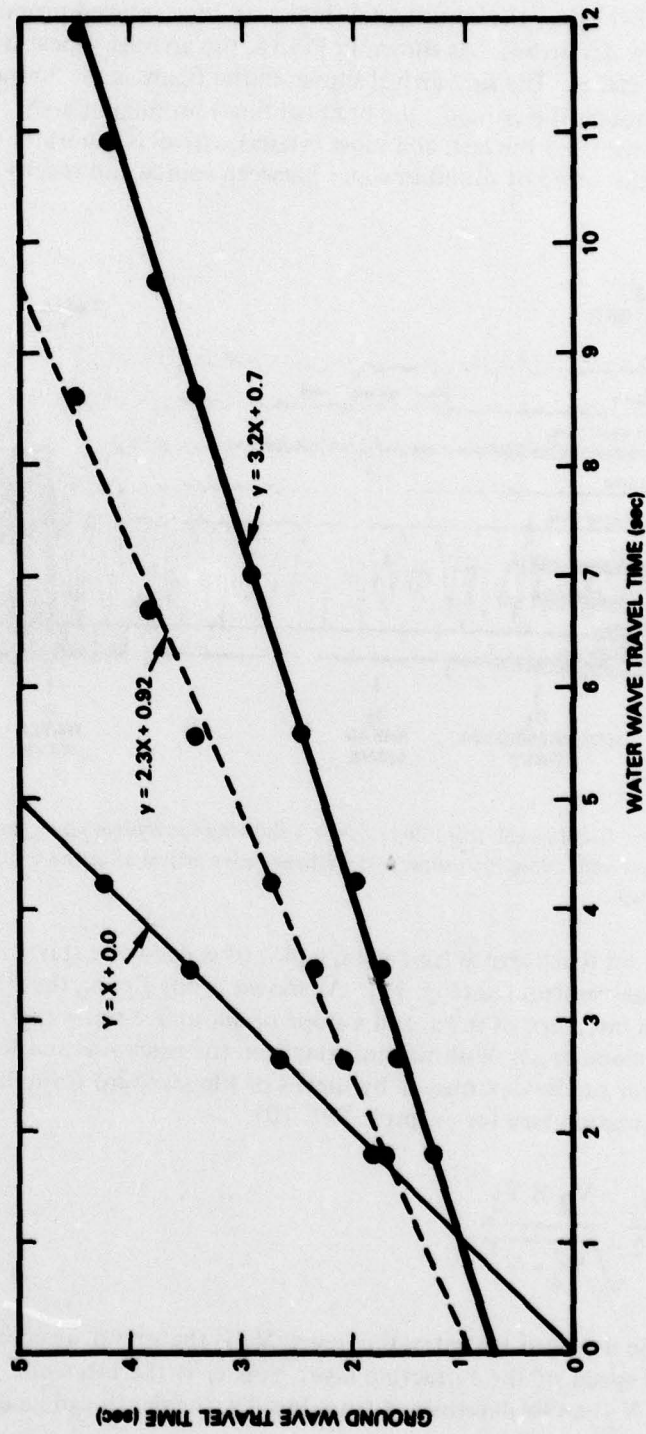


Figure 19. Travel time plot of the arrivals from shots over the continental slope, straight lines drawn by eye fit through the data points represent the best fit for the interpretation made in this report.

An additional line, shown in Fig. 19, having an intercept of 0.92 s and a slope of 2.3 times W, is based on secondary arrivals (as that marked G2 on Fig. 18). The arrivals determining this line are interpreted as being shear arrivals and give a sound speed of 3420 m/s which is close to that predicted (3038 m/s) for layer 5 (Ref. 7) and gives a V_p/V_s ratio of 1.71, which is near that expected with a Poisson ratio of 0.25. This interpretation requires that the energy was propagated as compressional waves in the water and sedimentary layers above the basement and converted into a shear wave at the consolidated sediment-basement interface (Ref. 11). The intercept value of 0.92 s supports such an interpretation because it gives a two-way travel time thickness of 2194 m, which is within 10 percent of that measured (Table 1). The S/N ratio of this second arrival (at 16^h 45^m 32^s) is greater than for the first arrivals (at 16^h 45^m 29.5^s) on all the detectors (Fig. 20) for shot 6, as is true for the other shallow-water shot data. This observation supports the interpretation of a shear-wave in the basement being converted to a P wave in the upper layers as described in Ref. 12. This type of "converted" P wave is believed to be due to a transformation of part of the compressional waves into vertically polarized shear waves (SV) at the contact between the sediment and the underlying crystalline rock, where nearly all of the energy is in the form of shear wave (Ref. 2)

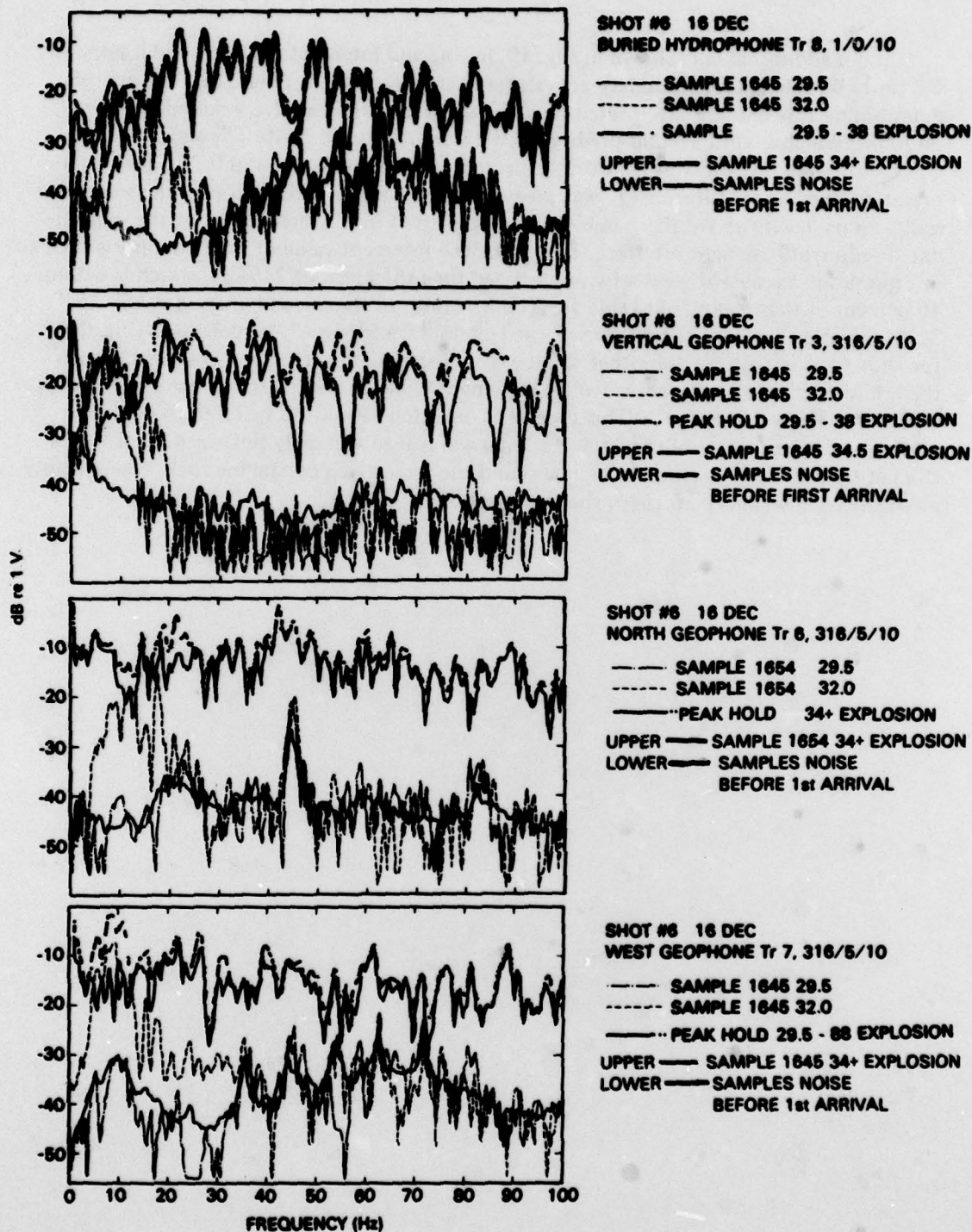


Figure 20. Spectrum analysis of the early ($16^h 45^m 29.5^s$) P arrivals, later S arrivals ($16^h 45^m 32^s$), and ambient noise for arrival time of shot 6 in the frequency band 0-100 Hz for both hydrophone and geophone data.

AMBIENT NOISE

Ambient noise during the summer (August) experiment was dominated by a strong cyclic component, thought to be due to an as yet unidentified biologic source (Ref. 13). These sounds, which have previously been described as of the "chorus-type" (Ref. 14), peak periodically at about 400 Hz, with amplitudes diminishing rapidly below 100 Hz and above 1000 Hz. The periodicity is typically about 45 s and amplitudes vary from barely discernible to 26 dB (Fig. 21). As shown in the figure, the troughs between peaks in the cycling sounds deepened near morning twilight and the time interval between peaks increased. The sounds were damped when local cloud cover occurred at 0630. Noise levels from this source were higher on the hydrophone recordings than on the geophone recordings and slightly higher on the E-W oriented geophone than on either the vertical or N-S geophone.

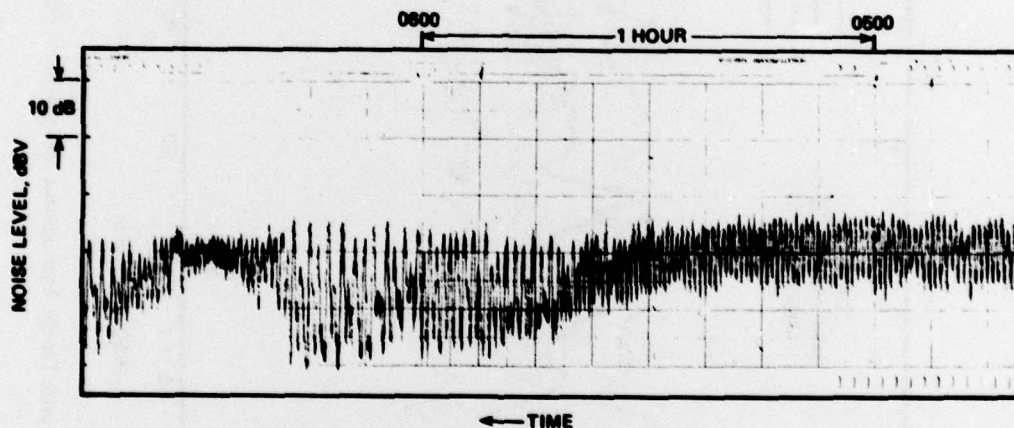


Figure 21. Ambient noise record for 24 August 1978, as detected on a bottomed hydrophone, in the 0- to 500-Hz band (3-Hz bandwidth).

The cyclic noise so prominent in summer appears to be absent in winter. The noise levels during the shot run (in December) were thus dominated by fishing vessels and surf. A typical example (Fig. 22) shows the noise level on the E-W geophone to be the highest in the 0- to 100-Hz band, the vertical geophone being next (below 50 Hz), the N-S geophone lower yet, and the buried hydrophone the lowest of all. (Generally, the buried hydrophone had a slightly lower noise level – and correspondingly better S/N ratio – than the bottom hydrophone.) The increase in noise level in the 30- to 70-Hz band, with some tonals near 30 Hz, was due to a ship that later passed fairly close to the tower. A strong (about 6-ft, as measured on the ladder at the tower) swell was running at the time, a light rain was falling, and there was a light wind from the SW. Surf along the beach (1.4 km to the east of the tower) was high, as it had been all day.

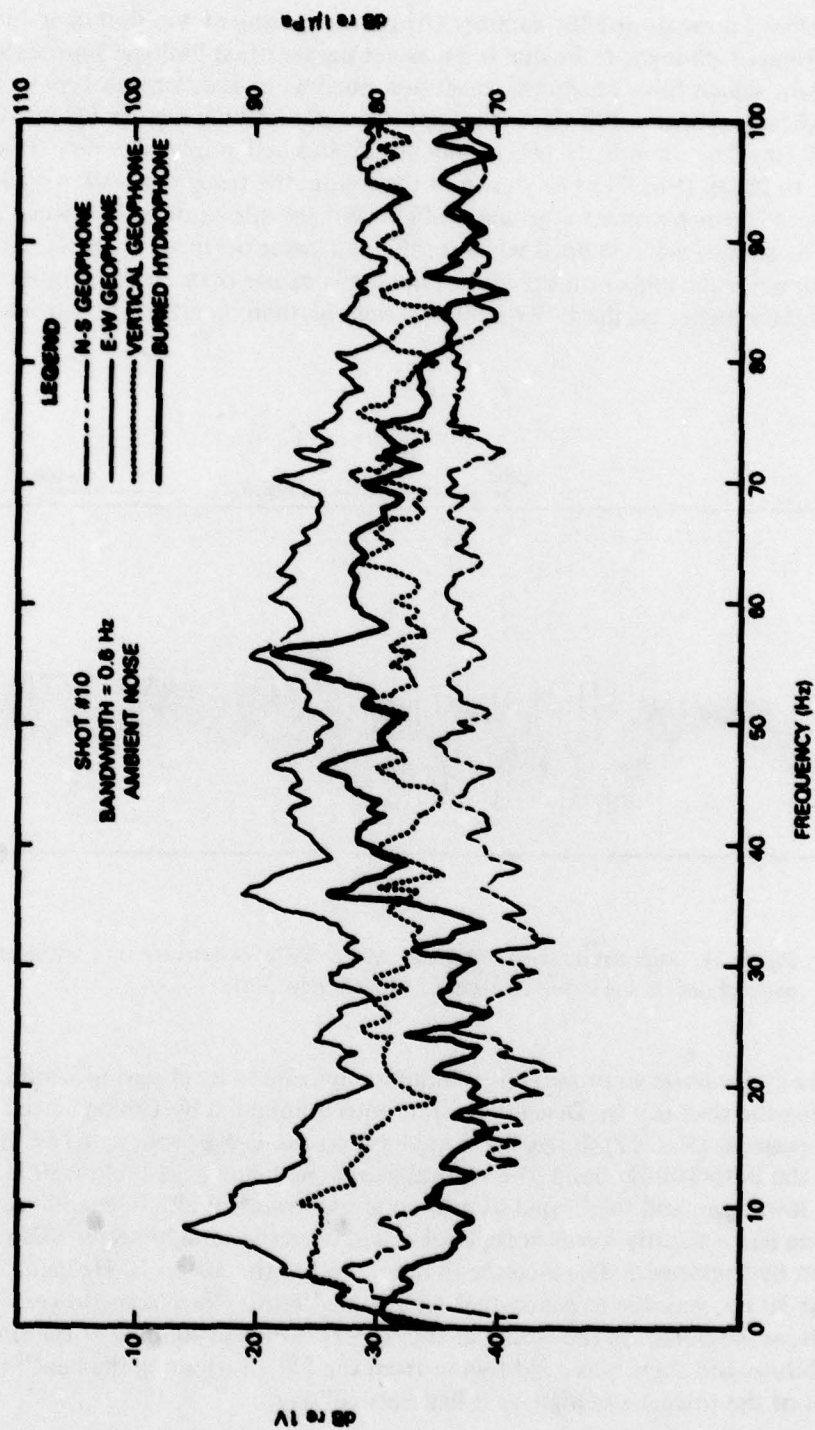


Figure 22. Ambient noise levels in the winter for the hydrophone and geophone detectors in the 0- to 100-Hz band.

GEOACOUSTIC MODEL

The geoacoustic model for the tower site consists of five layers. In descending order, with their corresponding compressional sound speeds, these are:

Water	1500 m/s
Unconsolidated	1798 m/s
Semiconsolidated	1855 m/s
Consolidated	4770 m/s
Basement	5860 m/s

Further details are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Geoacoustic parameters of the NOSC tower area.

LAYER DESCRIPTION	VELOCITY (m/s)		ATTENUATION CONSTANT (K) ^(a)		DENSITY (gm/cm ³)	THICKNESS (m)	DEPTH (m)
	V _p	V _s	K _p	K _s			
1. Water	1499	—	—	—	1.025		
	1501	—	—	—		18.3	18.3
2. Unconsolidated (sand)	1798 ^(b)	197 ^(b)	0.4 ^(b)	13.2	2.01 ^(b)	8.2	26.5
3. Semiconsolidated (sand)	1855	331	0.3	13.2	2.14 ^(c)		
	1875	396	0.3	13.2	2.14 ^(c)		
	1917	482	0.2	4.8	2.0 ⁽³⁾	11.0	37.5
4. Consolidated (sandstone)	4770 ^(d)	2783	0.1	3.4	2.6		
	4889	2794					
	4908	2805				553	590
5. Basement (basalt)	5860 ^(e)	3420	0.03	0.07	2.83	1400	1990

(a) As in atten (dB/m) = Kf (kHz)

(b) In Situ measurement by divers (Ref. 15)

(c) Well log data

(d) Apparent velocity

(e) Seismic refraction measurement

These parameters were input data for an FFP (Fast Field Program) computer model (Ref. 16) for calculating propagation loss. The program takes into account both the compressional and shear wave velocity and attenuation in the sediments as well as the density and thickness of layers. Comparison of the calculated and observed loss at 50 Hz is quite good, as shown in Fig. 23. The program has an option for calculating the ground motions in millimicrons for the north-south, east-west, and vertical geophones.

Seismic Gain

The term "seismic gain" as used by Urick (Ref. 1) describes the difference in S/N observed on geophone records compared to that observed concurrently on geophone records. For the close-in shots (less than 5 km), seismic gain of 5-8 dB is computed from the data of Fig. 9. As shown in Fig. 24, there is 4-8 dB seismic gain at 5 and 15 Hz for the vertical and E-W geophones, but only at 5-Hz for the N-S geophone.

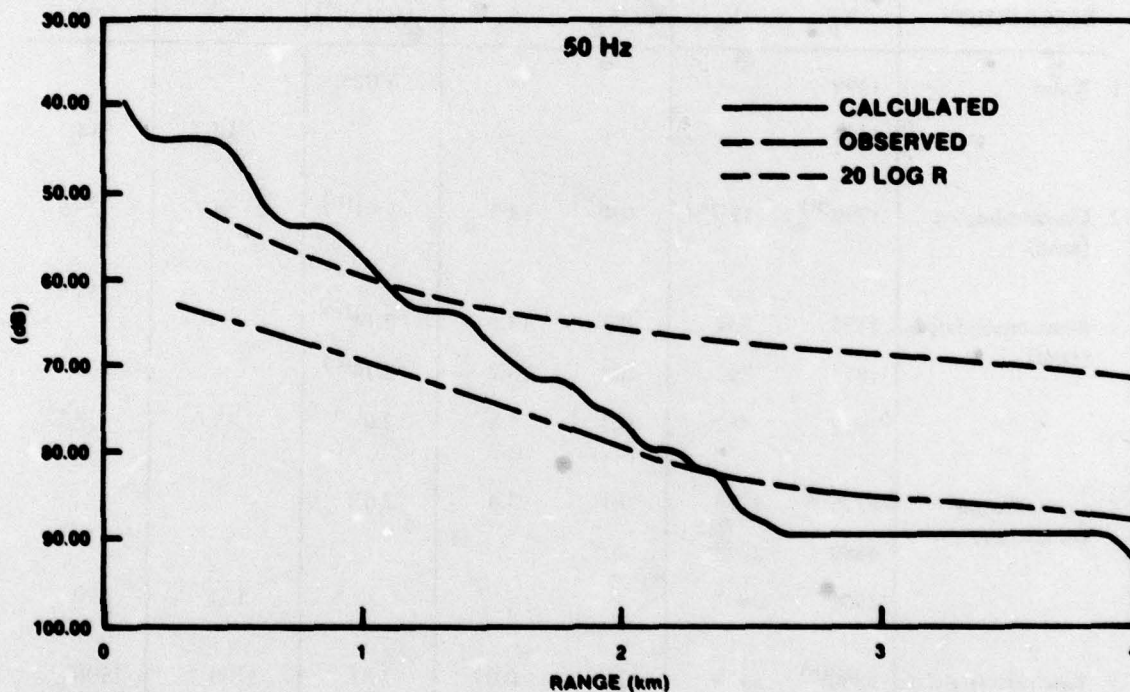


Figure 23. Computed and observed propagation loss to 50-Hz hydrophone data.

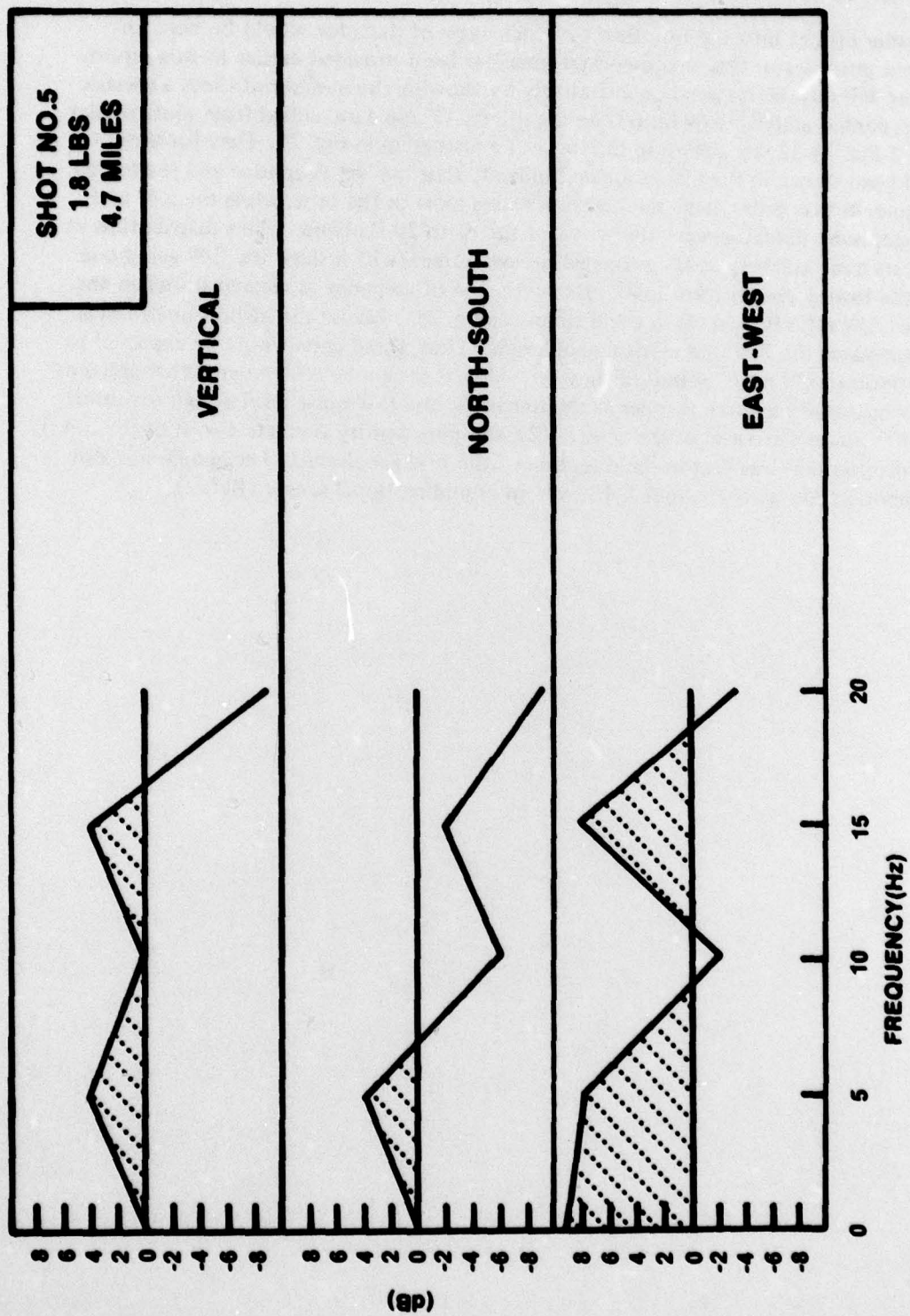


Figure 24. Seismic gain computed for 5 to 20 Hz. The null at 10 Hz may be due to poor coupling.

DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION

Some insight into the question of which type of detector would be best for surveillance purposes in this shallow-water area has been provided earlier in this report. The matter will now be resolved quantitatively by showing the number of times a specific detector recorded a higher S/N ratio than the others. These data, culled from plots similar to those of Fig. 18-22, are shown in the form of a histogram in Fig. 25. Data for shots 1 through 11 are shown in the histogram and indicate that the N-S geophone and the buried hydrophone, in that order, have the best S/N ratios most of the time, while the E-W and vertical geophone detector were the worst in the 5- to 20-Hz band. This distribution at first appears contradictory to the propagation loss curves (which show the E-W geophone to have the lowest propagation loss). However, the discrepancy is cleared up when the concept of S/N ratio is used (as in the histogram, Fig. 25) because the highest noise levels were observed on the E-W and vertical geophones. Thus, these units would be expected to have the poorest S/N ratio, as indeed they do. Also, it should be remembered that ambient noise propagates in the same manner as the signals, so the E-W noise level is high for three reasons: (1) surf noise is east of the tower; (2) shipping density is greatest west of the tower; and (3) propagation was best in the direction of the E-W geophones. The geophones also have a directionality gain of about 5 dB over an omnidirectional sensor (Ref. 2).

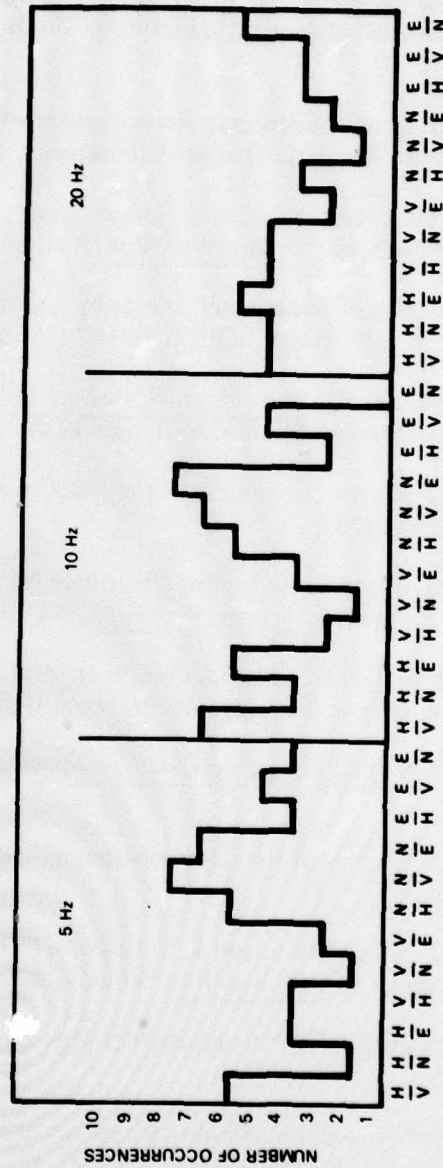


Figure 25. Histogram of the number of times the S/N ratio was greater on one detector than another. Data are for shots 3 through 11 and therefore include both the "ground" and "water" arrivals.

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